A Meta-analytic Review of Male Gender Role Conflict and its Consequences

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Philosophy

in

Psychology

August 2006


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ABSTRACT

The present meta-analysis examined how psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal variables are related to male gender role conflict and how age, ethnicity, and marital status moderated the aforementioned relationships. A total of 12,968 individuals from 71 independent samples were included in the study. The results indicated that male gender role conflict was negatively related to psychological wellbeing and interpersonal adjustment and was positively related to psychological distress, interpersonal problems, negative attitudes towards help seeking, and traditional attitudes towards gender roles. Moreover, age and ethnicity significantly moderated the impact of gender role conflict. The strength of relationship between gender role conflict and psychological and interpersonal correlates was found to be stronger among older men and ethnic minority groups than among younger and White men.

摘要

本本元分析檢驗男性性別角色衝突和心理因素、人際因素和態度因素之間的關係，並檢驗年齡、種族和婚姻狀況對這些關係的影響。本分析收集了 71 個獨立樣本，共 12968 位男士的數據。結果發現，男性性別角色衝突和心理健康和人際適應能力有負關係；和心理壓力、人際問題、對尋求協助的負面態度和對性別角色的傳統態度則有正關係。另外，年齡和種族顯著地調節男性性別角色衝突和部份心理因素和人際因素的關係；比起年齡較大和白種的男性，男性性別衝突的影響在年齡較輕和小數種族的男性更顯著。

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to dedicate my hearty thanks to Dr. Darius Chan, my thesis supervisor, for his guidance and supervision. I would also like to express my gratitude to Dr. Wai Chan and Dr. Winnie Mak for being my panel members and giving me valuable inspiration for the thesis. My gratitude also goes to Dr. James O'Neil, for his enthusiastic support in the study, Dr. Ann Fisher, for her provision of re-analyzed results, and Dr. Shu-fai Cheung and Grand Cheng, for their valuable guidance in the meta-analysis method.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The construct of masculinity represents an important topic in gender-related studies. This is a key area because it helps to explain why men are overrepresented in a myriad of problem populations: vagrants, drug abusers, sex addicts and offenders, perpetrators of interpersonal violence, victims of homicide, suicide and fatal automobile accidents, and victims of life-style and stress-related illnesses (Levant, 1996). It also contributes to our understanding of why men are less likely than women to seek help for their problems (Addis & Mahalik, 2003) and to hold egalitarian attitudes concerning gender roles (Fan & Marini, 2000). Information about masculinity thus holds great promise to help policy makers and practitioners to solve some of the "male problems" that have prolonged negative effects on men, women, and society as a whole. Among lines of masculinity research, the paradigm of male gender role conflict (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) continues to enjoy high popularity in the area of scientific inquiry and is extended in a family of subsequent studies. The paradigm suggests that socially constructed gender roles may have negative consequences on men and people surrounding them. Specifically, male gender role conflict is theorized to result from obstinate attempts to maintain gender role standards imposed by society (Good, Borst, & Wallace, 1994). It occurs when "rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles result in personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995, p. 166).

Recent decades have witnessed a burgeoning growth in empirical work on the relationships between male gender role conflict and its postulated negative consequences. Masculine gender role conflict has been found to be linked to different intra- and interpersonal problems, including depression, anxiety, drug

abuse, general reluctance to seek help, sexist attitudes to women, fear of intimacy, and sexual aggression (see O'Neil et al., 1995 for a narrative review). The findings, however, are not uniform across studies. Often enough, the strong association between gender role conflict and a correlate in one study is mixed with substantially weaker or nonsignificant association in others. For example, depression, in most of the studies, has been found to have a small positive correlation with the total score of male gender role conflict scale ($r < .30$; e.g., Good & Mintz, 1990; Good & Wood, 1995; Hayes & Mahalik, 2000), yet some studies have reported a strong positive relationship ($r = .49$; in Breiding, 2004), or virtually no relationship ($r = .02$; in Good, Heppner, Debord, & Fischer, 2004). Men's gender role conflict has also been found to be related to attitudes toward help seeking, with some studies reporting a small correlation ($r = .10$; in Mendoza & Cummings, 2001) and some reporting a much stronger relationship ($r = .43$; in Mansfield, Addis, & Courtenay, 2005).

As reviewed by Hunter and Schmidt (2004), conflicting results in the literature can be entirely artificial as sampling errors, measurement errors, and other artifacts may vary across studies, making the results ostensibly inconsistent. However, an unexpectedly weak or inconsistent relation between a predictor and a criterion variable may also imply the presence of moderators (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Previous researchers (e.g., O'Neil et al., 1995) had conducted narrative reviews of male gender role conflict; however, to our best knowledge, no meta-analysis has been conducted to quantitatively integrate findings of previous studies. The present review represents the first attempt to meta-analyze findings of previous studies pertaining to the issues of male gender role conflict. We aimed to examine the true correlations between gender role conflict and a number of intra- and interpersonal problems and to identify moderators of these correlations. The current study included psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates as the

criterion variables. Age, ethnicity, and marital status were tested as moderators of the association between male gender role conflict and other factors.

Theoretical Background

In the 1980s, O'Neil and his associates (O'Neil, 1981a, 1981b, 1982; O'Neil et al., 1986, 1995) proposed a highly robust construct to study the traditional expectations men face. These authors reasoned that although men are conventionally granted more authority and power than do women, they also experience stress under the hierarchy of gender system: traditional socialization of male gender roles and masculine mystique and value system join to cultivate a fear of femininity in men. They are pressured to restrict their roles and behaviors in stereotypically masculine ways and to avoid any sign of femininity. The rigid enactment of traditional male gender roles is hypothesized to cause male gender role conflict that is linked to different intra- and interpersonal problems. Intrapersonal problems occur when men conform to maladaptive masculine norms, such as emotional inexpressiveness, or when they fall short of the masculine gender ideals. In the latter case, men may feel shamed and anxious due to the discrepancy between the ideal and real masculine self. Sociocultural agents surrounding them may exacerbate the stress by devaluing those who fail to act in masculine ways. Interpersonal problems may arise when men express the conflicts toward others. Men under protracted emotional suppression, for example, may vent their visceral gender role conflicts indirectly through the perpetration of aggressive behaviors, which may inflict grave impact on the personal safety of the recipient and the relationship itself (c.f. Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998).

The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (GRCS-I; O'Neil et al., 1986) was developed as an inventory attending to different forms of gender role conflict in men. These forms emerged as four factors in the scale. The first factor, Success, Power, and

Competition (SPC), measures men's persistent concern or worries about personal achievement and career success, obtaining power and domineering others, and prevailing and establishing superiority in competitions. The second factor, Restrictive Emotionality (RE), is a measure of one's difficulty and fears about expressing basic feelings. The third factor, Restrictive Affectionate Behaviors Between Men (RABBM), refers to having restrained ways to express affectionate feelings with other men and difficulty touching other men. The fourth factor, Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (CBWFR), refers to experiencing difficulties balancing work-school and family relations which results in health problems, overwork, stress, and a lack of leisure and relaxation. The four-factor structure had been confirmed in six factor analyses, with three conducted in samples of college students, two conducted in adult samples, and one using confirmatory factor analysis (O'Neil et al., 1995).

Impact of Male Gender Role Conflict

Male gender role conflict is theorized to bring detrimental consequences to men and others. Empirical evidence which documents the negative impact of the rigid enactment of traditional masculine gender roles has also amassed. Male gender role conflict has been found to be connected to different mental health indices, including depression and anxiety (Good, Heppner, DeBord, & Fischer, 2004; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Zamarripa, Wampold, & Gregory, 2003), state-trait anger (Blazina & Watkins, 1996), self-esteem (Mahalik, Benjamin, Theodore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd, 2001), and somatization (Good, Robertson, Fitzgerald, Stevens, & Bertels, 1996). In addition, men who scored high on the GRCS-I were more likely to report interpersonal problems, such as limited intimacy (Good, et al., 1996) and aggression toward women (Jakupcak, Lisak, & Rimemer, 2002; Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998). They were also more likely to report sexist attitudes towards

women and minority groups (Robinson & Schwartz, 2004). Even worse, when faced with problems, men with greater gender role conflict tended to avoid seeking professional help, which put them in double jeopardy (Good & Wood, 1990). In fact, even popular stereotypes portray men reluctantly asking for directions when they are lost and avoiding sharing vulnerable emotions with others (Addis et al., 2003). Senses of competence, self-reliance, and control are well weaved within traditional ideology of masculinity. When men with rigid gender roles are faced with problems, they are motivated to camouflage their weaknesses rather than seeking help from others (Good & Mintz, 2001)

Taken together, there is strong empirical support that male gender role conflict is linked to psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal variables. These variables are also the most frequently examined consequences in the realm of masculinity studies. Therefore, the present meta-analysis summarized studies with outcome measures of these three aspects of problems. Specifically, we considered two psychological variables (psychological wellbeing and psychological distress), two interpersonal variables (interpersonal adjustment and interpersonal problems), and two attitudinal variables (attitudes towards help seeking and attitudes towards women and minority) as the criterion variables in the study. Psychological wellbeing and interpersonal adjustment were respectively distinguished from psychological distress and interpersonal problems because wellbeing and adjustment is theorized to be different from an absence of illness or predicaments. Instead, they represent complex constructs related to optimal experience and functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Psychological wellbeing included variables, such as self esteem, positive affect, and life satisfaction while psychological distress, for instance, depression, anxiety, and negative affects. Interpersonal adjustment referred to variables, such as social intimacy and relationship satisfaction whereas interpersonal problems,

hostility, dominance, and aggression. Attitudes towards help seeking included variables, such as openness regarding one's problems, confidence in mental health professionals, and general measures of overall attitudes. Attitudes towards gender role captured men's attitudes towards women and sexual minorities (e.g., homosexual people). Variables, such as attitudes towards women roles and distains for homosexuals, were included.

Potential Moderator Variables

In a review of psychological concepts and measures of masculinity, Smiler (2004) discussed the importance of developmental and contextual factors in determining the structure of masculinity and criticized masculinity theories for relying on an individualistic or acontextual approach. Mahalik et al. (2001) also argued that previous researchers of masculinity were inclined to propagate a uniformity myth. That is, they tended to suggest that all men were the same and that the effect of masculinity was similar for them. This acontextual approach is believed to restrict the influence of masculinity theories in the field of gender studies. Based on this reasoning, the discovery of moderators would ultimately enrich male gender role conflict theory as it takes the context, i.e., developmental and sociocultural factors, into account. The present review is to employ a contextual approach to study masculinity. We believe that contextual variables would affect the strength of relationships between gender role conflict and its outcomes. The moderators chosen for investigation here were age, ethnicity, and marital status. In the following sections, we develop the rationale for these moderators and elaborate on their potential effects.

Age. Previous studies have lent evidence on the influence of developmental processes on the enactment of masculinity. It is generally accepted that, although men are more rigid and extreme in relation to masculine gender roles in young

adulthood, they are shifting in the direction of expressing more stereotypically feminine characteristics in later periods of life (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Wink & Helson, 1993). Based on Levinson et al.'s (1978) observation of gender role shift, Cournoyer and Mahalik (1995) suggested that middle-aged men may be drawn more to emotional connectedness and less to instrumental approaches to relationships. With the greater integration of feminine traits, they may give more attention to their basic emotions and value interpersonal relations more. They may even feel freer to demonstrate their affectionate thoughts and feelings to younger men, especially in the role of mentor, as society is less likely to attach homosexual connotation to that mode of relationship. A gradually relented adherence to masculine standards has also been hypothesized by O'Neil et al. (1995), who posit that each man goes through a lifelong journey during which he reexamines his gender role socialization, recognizes that sexism has affected his life, and redefines certain gender role themes. Elder men should begin to compromise their gender roles and the thus experience less gender role conflicts. Given that each culture offers its men masculinity scripts, or "social clocks" which depict general changes of masculinity in men's life courses (Spector-Mersel, 2006), elder men who do not integrate more of their emotional selves or become more affiliative with others may incur more costs than do their younger counterparts.

Mahalik et al.'s (2001) study represented one of the first studies exploring the hypothesized moderating role of age in the impact of male gender role. Based on data collected from 179 college-aged and 146 middle-aged men, Mahalik et al. (2001) examined the effect of age on the strength of relationships between gender role conflict and social intimacy. Their results revealed that social intimacy was more strongly associated with male gender role conflict in college-aged men than in middle-aged men. However, their conclusion was based on a sample of fairly

modest size. Problems of capitalization of chance and low statistical power may come into play. Besides, only social intimacy was examined in Mahalik et al.'s study; whether age moderates relations between gender role conflict and other kinds of variables (e.g., psychological and attitudinal) is virtually unknown. Therefore, age was included in the moderator analysis in our review; when compared with their younger counterparts, older men were expected to suffer more from male gender role conflict.

Ethnicity. Given that male gender roles are products of masculine socialization, men from different cultural backgrounds may have different conceptions of masculinity (Gilmore, 1990; Pleck, 1995). As revealed by some studies conducted within the United States, American men from different ethnic backgrounds have expressed different views when defining what it means to be an ideal man. For example, influenced by a focus on group harmony and filial piety and conformity to the expectations of parents, Asian masculinity is usually tied to courtesy, obedience, dutifulness, and involvement in domestic tasks (Liu, 2002). Quite in contrast, with the aim of changing boys into the authority figures in the family, traditional Hispanic socialization of men emphasizes prowess, virility, and dominance (Fragoso & Kashubeck, 2000; Lane & Addis, 2005). On the other hand, African American men, for their long history of slavery and oppression, are characterized by qualities of pride and social competence. Their masculinities are also noted as "compulsory" or "exaggerated" (Abreu, Goodyear, Campos, & Newcomb, 2000, p. 76). Although men of colors may be subject to a very different set of socializing influences than do White men, often enough, norms set for White masculinity are also held as gender ideals for them (Wade, 1996). Men of colors may find it difficult to integrate White masculinity with their culturally specific conception of masculinity. The experience of gender role conflict in men of colors is believed to be more complex because,

apart from having to compromise with the dominant White masculinity, they have to cope with poverty, discrimination, and racism, which further block them from achieving mainstream culture's masculine ideal (Clatterbaught, 1990; Fragoso & Kashubeck, 2000).

Lane and Addis' (2005) study pertaining to help seeking is among the few studies which explore the moderating role of ethnicity in the relation between men gender role conflict and its correlates. They computed a series of correlations between willingness to seek help from different potential helpers and gender role conflict in Hispanic and White men and revealed different patterns across the two groups. In general, the associations between male gender role conflict and men's comfort levels talking about various problems and willingness to seek help from professionals (e.g., doctors and psychologists) were stronger in the Hispanic sample. Although a difference in correlational patterns did imply a moderating effect of ethnicity, the hypothesis was not examined with a statistical significance test. Besides, little is known about the moderating effect of ethnicity in psychological and interpersonal realms of outcome measures. We thus examined ethnicity as a moderator in the review; ethnic minority groups were expected to react more strongly to male gender role conflict than White groups.

Marital Status. There is limited research examining the relationship between marital status and gender roles. However, a few studies found that currently married people were less egalitarian than formerly or never-married individuals (Mason & Lu, 1988; Morgan & Walker, 1983); it is speculated that marriage offers a context in which traditional sex roles are activated and expressed. Despite a convergence of gender roles witnessed in recent decades, women continue to assume most nurturing and household responsibilities than do men (Lennon & Rosenfield, 1994). As the household setting facilitates gender differentiation between the husband and the wife,

married men may be more sensitive and concerned about their masculine roles (Fan & Marini, 2000). These findings, however, are not unequivocal. Mason and Bumpass (1975), for example, did not find married individuals to hold less egalitarian attitudes towards gender roles. In addition, in a longitudinal-sequential study for a nationally representative sample of U. S. youth, Fan and Marini's (2000) revealed a shift in gender role attitudes in a less egalitarian direction only among women. Entry into marriages appeared to bear no significant relationship to young men's gender role attitudes. These authors imputed the results to the fact that women were generally more egalitarian than men. After marriage, men's ongoing contact with a more liberal companion may offset the sensitizing influence of marriage on gender-role awareness.

Given the paucity and inconsistency of the evidence available, the answer to whether marital status moderates the association between men's gender role conflict and its postulated outcomes appears to be elusive. However, apart from facilitating a gender-based division of labor, marriage also invites long-standing normative expectations associated with the marital roles of women and men (Fan & Marini, 2000). At entry into marriage, men directly confront the normative expectations (e.g., men should be the breadwinners in the households) that they, their spouses, family members, and friends hold about gender roles. These expectations may actuate men to more meticulously adhere to ideal gender role concepts and thus strengthen the effect of any failure to enact rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles. Taken together, we examined marriage as a moderator and expected a stronger association between gender role conflict and other factors in married men than in unmarried ones.

The Present Study

To recapitulate, the present study attempted to quantitatively summarize findings of previous studies pertaining to the issues of male gender role conflict.

True correlations between gender role conflict and psychological variables (psychological wellbeing and distress), interpersonal variables (interpersonal adjustment and problems), and attitudinal variables (attitudes towards help seeking and gender roles) were estimated. Our study also aimed to enrich the theories of masculinity by taking into account the contextual factors of participants. Three contextual factors, namely age, ethnicity, and marital status, were studied as moderators. The association between gender role conflict and its postulated outcomes was expected to be stronger in elder men, in ethnic minority groups, and in married men than in their younger, White, and unmarried counterparts.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Study selection

The present review included studies from 1986, the year after the publication of O'Neil and his associates' male gender role conflict scale, through 2006. Three methods were used to locate published studies for possible inclusion: consultation of reference lists from previous reviews of the literature on male gender role conflict (e.g., O'Neil et al., 1995), computerized search of the PsycINFO, Social Science Citation, and Medline databases from 1986 through 2005, and manual issue-by-issue search of the following journals from 1986 through 2006: *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *Sex Roles* and *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice.*

To minimize publication bias, dissertations and unpublished papers were included. We contacted James O'Neil and other active scholars in the area of masculinity and gender roles and requested their unpublished manuscripts. 16 emails were sent out to active researchers in the field; 10 replies were received.

Inclusion Criteria

Studies were selected for inclusion if they: (1) employed O'Neil's male gender role conflict scale or its subscales, (2) provided empirical data on one of the three relations of interest: psychological health, interpersonal problems, or attitudinal variables, (3) reported correlations or other statistics that can be transformed into correlation coefficient, and (4) were based on male samples.

On the basis of these criteria, 56 published papers and 11 dissertations were selected for inclusion in the meta-analysis. The analyses were based on 12,968 individuals from 71 independent samples. Each sample included an average sample size of 183 participants.

Coding Procedure

Two independent raters recorded the following information for each independent sample: sample size, reliability coefficients of the male gender role conflict subscales and the outcome criteria, and effect sizes. For samples that did not report the reliability coefficient of a certain measure, the sample size-weighted mean reliability coefficient of that variable across samples included in this review was used as a substitute. Effect sizes such as mean differences and *t*-values were transformed into Pearson's correlation coefficients (Lipsey & Wikon, 2000). For samples that reported effect sizes between male gender role conflict and multiple measures of a criterion variable (e.g., correlation between male gender role conflict and interpersonal problems defined in terms of hostility and dominance), an single estimate of correlation was computed based on the intercorrelations among the variables and the reliability of each measure (Hunter & Scdmidt, 2004). A simple average was used when such information is lacking.

Raters also coded the potential moderators, namely age, ethnicity, sample source, and marital status. The age of the sample is recorded as the mean age. Based on the percentage of White in the sample (Miller & Downey, 1999), sample ethnicity was recorded as predominantly White (80% or more White) or ethnically diverse (usually African and Hispanic Americans). Sample marital status was recorded as predominantly married (50% or more currently married) or predominantly unmarried. Reliabilities were uniformly high, ranging from 85 to 100%. Divergent ratings were discussed until a consensus was reached.

Meta-analytic Procedures

A meta-analysis is not merely an aggregate of data across studies. It also corrects the data for artifacts as much as possible. The present review employed the meta-analytic methods of Hunter and Schmidt (2004) and controlled for the artifacts

of sampling and measurement errors. Because very few studies reported scale ranges, means and standard deviations, it was not possible to correct for the range of restriction in this analysis. The reported correlation in each an independent sample was divided by the square-root of reliability coefficients of the involved measures to obtain a corrected correlation which was then weighted with the product of sample size. The weighted coefficients were summed and divided by the sum of the weights. The result was an estimate of the true population correlation. According to Cohen (1988), correlations of 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 were considered as small, medium and large effects respectively; we used this conventional classification to evaluate the magnitude of effect size. 95% confidence intervals were constructed for the relationships between male gender role conflict and each psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates by the standard error of the mean effect size. The intervals reflect the extent to which sampling error remains in the estimate of a mean effect size to test if each relationship was nonzero (Whitener, 1990).

The overall meta-analysis effects were followed by tests for the presence of moderators. We estimated the degree to which statistical artifacts explained variance in the sample size-weighed mean correlations corrected for measurement error. To indicate the presence of moderators, 75% or less of the observed variance should be explained by the artifacts. In addition, the 90% credibility intervals of these relationships should also be wide so that one can obviate the need to break down the whole population into subpopulations (Whitener, 1990). The 75% criterion and the breadth of the credibility intervals can only indicate the presence of moderators but not their identity. Whereas moderators were likely to be present and moderator analyses were warranted, subgroup analyses were conducted; meta-analytic correlations and variances were calculated for each relation separately in each subgroup defined by the categories of the moderators chosen (e.g., age < 30 vs. age

= > 30). Variables were dropped when the minimum requirement of at least two studies per subgroup was not met. Following Hunter and Schmidt (1990), we used *z* tests for moderation to examine if there was significant mean effect size difference between subgroups. For each set of moderator analysis, the Bonferroni method was applied to guard against the inflation of Type I errors.

Table 1. Study Information (Author, Year, Sample Size, Outcome Measure, and Effect Size of Total Score)

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Berger, Levant, McMillan, Kelleher,	155	55.7	0.86	-	Alexithymia	0.35
Sellers (2005)					Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.17
Blazina & Watkins (1996)	148	23.3	0.77	-	Negative emotions	0.15
					Attitudes towards help seeking	-.21
Blazina & Marks (2001)	128	20.5	0.80	-	Positive affect	-0.03
					Negative affect	0.27
					Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.28
Blazina & Watkins (2000)	172	21.3	0.76	-	Interpersonal problems	0.32
					Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.25
Breiding (2004)	60	38.2	0.85	1	Depression	0.49
					Domination and hostility	0.22
					Marital adjustment	-0.49
Bruch (2002)	169	19.3	0.72	-	Ability to elicit self-disclosure	-0.26
Bruch, Berko, & Haase (1998) (Study 1)	193	19.7	0.76	-	Intimate self-disclosure	-0.32
Bruch, Berko, & Haase (1998) (Study 2)	101	18.3	0.71	-	Interpersonal competence	-0.30
Campbell & Snow (1992)	70	40.1	0.79	1	Marital adjustment	-0.30
Celentana (2000) (unpublished)	130	40.0	0.91	-	Self esteem	0.16
					Distress	0.29
					Social Intimacy	-0.19
Cortese (2003) (unpublished)	308	44.3	0.63	0.61	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.39

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Defranc & Mahalik (2002)	204	21.3	0.83	0.05	Relationship adjustment	-0.05
Fischer & Good (1998)	195	19.3	0.90	-	Conflictual relationship	-0.02
Englar-Carlson (2001) (unpublished)	231	20.8	-	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.28
					Sex Roles	-0.36
Ervin (2003) (unpublished)	277	37.8	0.92	-	Wellbeing	-0.53
Fragoso & Kashubeck (2000) (unpublished)	113	38.4	0	0.69	Distress	0.23
Graham (2003) (unpublished)	140	60	-	1	Retirement satisfaction	-0.30
					Marital satisfaction	-0.27
Good, Heppner, & DeBord (2004)	260	19	090	-	Distress	0.09
					Social support	0.05
Good & Mintz (1990)	401	19.3	-	-	Depression	0.26
Good, Robertson, O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Stevens, DeBord, Bartels, & Braverman (1995) (Study 1)	107	19.0	0.89	-	Fear of intimacy	0.29
Good, Robertson, O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Stevens, DeBord, Bartels, & Braverman (1995) (Study 4)	130	23.2	0.84	-	Distress	0.38
Good & Wood (1995)	397	19.3	0.82	-	Depression	0.14
					Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.26

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Hayes & Mahalik (2000)	99	22.9	0.88	0.08	Depression	0.28
					Hostility	0.34
Jakupcak, Lisak, & Roemer (2002)	165	25.8	0.61	0.14	Interpersonal aggression	0.11
Jo (2000) (Study 1)	111	21.9	0	-	Self esteem	-0.22
Jo (2000) (Study 2)	191	21.3	0	-	Self esteem	-0.22
					Distress	0.48
Jome & Tokar (1997)	100	-	0.90	-	Homophobia	0.42
Harnishfeger (1998) (unpublished)	175	19.7	0.80	-	Use of dating violence	0.21
Kang (2001)(unpublished)	303	20.6	0	-	Distress	0.35
Kassing, Beesley, & Frey	210	48.9	0.95	0.74	Rape myth acceptance	0.25
					Homophobia	0.21
Kearny, Rochlen, & King (2004)	98	21.9	0.78	-	Sexual harassment tolerance	-0.37
Lane & Addis (2005)	105	20.3	-	-	Tendency to seek help	0.04
Liu, Rochlen, & Mohr (2005)	142	22.2	0.51	-	Distress	0.43
Mahalik (2000)	101	21.5	0.65	0.02	Hostility	0.28
Mahalik, Cournoyer, DefFranc, Cherry, & Napolitano (1998)	115	26.5	0.72	0.23	Defense mechanism	0.13
Mahalik & Lagan (2001) (Sample 1)	74	24.1	0.77	-	Spiritual wellbeing	-0.14
Mahalik & Lagan (2001) (Sample 2)	77	21.1	0.94	-	Spiritual wellbeing	-0.20

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Mahalik, Locke, Theordore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd (2001) (American sample)	183	29.8	0.94	-	Self esteem	-0.15
Mahalik, Locke, Theordore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd (2001) (Australian sample)	142	28.7	1	-	Self esteem	-0.21
Mahalik, Locke, Theordore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd (2001) (College sample)	169	19.8	0.92	-	Social intimacy	-0.03
Mahalik, Locke, Theordore, Cournoyer, & Lloyd (2001) (Middle-aged sample)	146	41	1	1	Social intimacy	-0.16
Mahalik, Locke, Ludlow, Diemer, Scott, Gottfried, & Fretias (2003)	269	19.7	0.83	-	Violence	0.17
					Disdain for homosexuals	0.36
Mansfield, Addis, & Courtenay (2005) (Study 1)	537	19.9	0.92	-	Barrier to help seeking	0.41
Mansfield, Addis, & Courtenay (2005) (Study 2)	58	19.3	0.90	-	Barrier to help seeking	0.43
Mendoza & Cummings (2001)	109	37.0	0.91	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.10
Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell (1998)	191	21.7	0.69	0.53	Aggression	0.43
					Sexual Stereotype	0.40
Robertson & Fitzgerald (1992)	445	21.6	0.76	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.26
Robertson & Schwartz (2004)	381	20.5	0.88	0.09	Attitudes towards women	-0.21
Rochlen, Land, & Wong (2004)	191	21.8	0.57	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.16

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Rochlen & Mahalik (2004)	176	-	-	-	Marital adjustment	-0.29
Rochlen & O'Brien (2002)	310	19.7	0.65	-	Attitudes toward help seeking	-0.37
Roderick (2003)	80	-	0	-	Positive affect	-0.25
					Distress	0.25
Schwartz, Buboltz, Seemann, & Flye (2004)	366	31.2	0.19	-	Depression	0.29
					Aggression	0.23
Schwartz, Waldo, & Daniel (2005)	74	31.8	0	0	Self esteem	-0.38
					Aggression	0.04
Senn, Desmarais, Verberg, & Wood (2000)	195	41.1	0.96	0.64	Hostility	0.26
					Rape myth acceptance	0.26
Sharpe, Heppner, & Dixon (1995)	88	50	0.94	0.89	Self esteem	-0.09
					Distress	0.12
					Interpersonal adjustment	-0.13
					Interpersonal problems	0.23
Sharpe & Heppner (1991)	190	-	-	-	Self esteem	-0.07
					Distress	0.19
					Relationship adjustment	-0.16
Shepard (2002)	111	-	-	-	Depression	0.26
Simmonsen, Blzina, & Watkins (2000)	117	37	0.87	-	Distress	0.32

Author(s)	*N*	Mean age	% of White	% of married men	Outcome measure	Effect Size
Theodore & Lloyd (2000)	343	23	0.87	0.11	Shame	0.30
Tokar, fisher, Schaub, & Moradi (2000)	173	22.1	0.82	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.24
					Distress	0.21
Wester & Pioke (2005)	295	35	-	-	Relationship adjustment	-0.24
White (2002)	271	-	0	-	Attitudes towards help seeking	-0.14
Wilkinson (2004)	176	19.4	0.94	-	Anti-gay attitudes	0.40
Zamarripa, Wampold, & Gregory (2003)	61	24.6	0.85	-	Depression	0.46

Note. *N* = number of participants

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Reliability of Male Gender Role Conflict and its Correlates

As some studies did not provide information about construct reliability, sample-size-weighted mean reliabilities for male gender role conflict and its correlates were computed for substitution. Table 1 presents the number of studies which provided local reliability information (*k*), the total number of individuals in theses samples (*N*) and the sample-size-weighted mean reliability. The sample-size-weighted mean reliability for the total score of male gender role conflict was .90. The reliability means of the subscales were .86, .85, .85, and .80 for the subscale SPC, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR respectively. Besides, the reliability means for psychological wellbeing, psychological distress, interpersonal adjustment, interpersonal problems, attitudes towards help seeking, and attitudes towards gender roles were .89, .89, .92, .87, .84, and .86 respectively.

Table 2. Reliability Estimates for Male Gender Role Conflict and other Constructs

Constructs	*K*	*N*	Reliability
Male Gender Role Conflict Total	35	6697	0.90
Success, Power, and Competition	35	6506	0.86
Restrictive Emotionality	41	7641	0.85
Restrictive Behaviors Among Men	37	6970	0.85
Conflict between Work and Family	34	6231	0.80
Psychological Wellbeing	3	579	0.89
Psychological Distress	15	2591	0.89
Interpersonal Adjustment	4	900	0.92
Interpersonal Problems	9	1460	0.87
Attitudes towards Help Seeking	12	2989	0.84
Attitudes towards Gender Roles	7	1239	0.86

Note. k = number of samples in which reliability information was presented; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; Reliability = sample-size-weighted mean reliabilities

Main Effect Analyses

Results from the meta-analyses relating the psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates of male gender role conflict are provided in Table 2-6. Data in the tables include the number of studies investigating each relationship (*k*), the total number of individuals from these samples (*N*), the sample-size-weighted mean correlation (*r*), the correlation corrected for unreliability (ρ), the estimated population standard deviation (SD_ρ), the 95% confidence intervals (CI), the 90% credibility intervals (CrI), and the percentage explained by artifacts. In cases where the population standard deviations were estimated to be zero or negative or more than 75% of the observed variance was explained by artifacts, the confidence interval for homogeneous effect sizes was constructed. Otherwise, the confidence intervals were constructed around the uncorrected correlations using heterogeneous standard error.

Psychological Variables. For the psychological correlates, Table 2 shows that the corrected sample-size-weighted mean correlations between the total score of male gender role conflict and psychological wellbeing, based on 1,885 individuals from 14 independent samples, was -.27. Additionally, as the confidence interval did not include zero, the relationship was statistically significant (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Based on 5029 individuals from 29 independent samples, the association between male gender role conflict and physical distress was also found to be significant ($\rho = .32$).

Tables 3-6 shows that the individually corrected weighted mean correlations between the subscales of SPC, RE, RABM, and CWF and psychological wellbeing ranged from -.16 to -.33; those between the subscales of SPC, RE, RAMB, and CWF and psychological distress ranged from .21 to .36.

Interpersonal Variables. The corrected correlation between the total score of male gender role conflict and interpersonal adjustment was based on 2,198 individuals from 14 independent samples. After correcting for measurement attenuation, the sample-size-weighted mean correlations between male gender role conflict and interpersonal adjustment was significant (ρ = -.19). In terms of interpersonal problems, the relationship was based on 2,568 individuals from 16 independent samples. The corrected association between male gender role conflict and interpersonal problems was also significant (ρ = .28) (see Table 2).

Tables 3-6 shows that the individually corrected weighted mean correlations between the subscales of SPC, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR and interpersonal adjustment ranged from -.05 to -.35 and those between the subscales of SPC, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR and interpersonal problems ranged from .14 to .35.

Attitudinal Variables. The meta-analyses of overall relationships between male gender role conflict and attitudinal correlates indicated significant associations as both the confidence intervals excluded zero. As shown in Table 2, the corrected correlation between the total score of male gender role conflict and attitudes towards help seeking, based on 4,526 individuals from 19 independent samples, was -.31 whereas that between male gender role conflict and attitudes towards gender roles, estimated from 1,642 individuals from 9 independent samples, was also -.38.

Our results also indicated that the associations between the subscales of SPC, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR and attitudes towards help seeking ranged from -.15 to -.34 (see Table 3-6). Those between the subscales of SPC, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR and interpersonal problems ranged from -.14 to -.37.

Cohen (1988) proposed that correlations of 0.1, 0.3, and 0.5 could be considered as small, medium, and large effects. Evaluated under this conventional criterion, the

magnitude of effect size of male gender role can be considered to range from small to moderate.

Table 3. Meta-Analytic Relationships between Total Score of Male Gender Role Scale and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, Attitudes towards Help Seeking, and Attitudes towards Gender Roles

	k	N	r	ρ	SD_ρ	95% CI	90% CrI	V_{art} (%)
PSYCHOLOGICAL								
Wellbeing	14	1885	-.24	-.26	.11	(-.41, -.12)	(-.31, -.17)	34.12
Distress	29	5029	.29	.32	.10	(.19, .45)	(.24, .33)	36.94
INTERPERSONAL								
Adjustment	14	2198	-.17	-.19	.11	(-.33, -.05)	(-.24, -.11)	38.22
Problems	16	2568	.25	.28	.12	(.12, .44)	(.18, .31)	31.16
ATTITUDINAL								
Help seeking	19	4526	-.26	-.30	.09	(-.41, -.19)	(-.31, -.22)	38.00
Gender roles	9	1642	-.33	-.38	0	(-.38)	(-.37, -.29)	100

Note. k = number of; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; r = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = Percentage of variance explained by artifacts

Table 4. Meta-Analytic Relationships between Success, Power, and Competition and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, Attitudes towards Help Seeking, and Attitudes towards Gender Roles

	k	N	r	ρ	SD_ρ	95% CI	90% CrI	V_{art} (%)
PSYCHOLOGICAL								
Wellbeing	13	1808	-.13	-.16	.19	(-.41, .09)	(-.22, -.04)	25.43
Distress	26	4616	.18	.21	.09	(.09, .33)	(.14, .22)	45.63
INTERPERSONAL								
Adjustment	8	1159	-.05	-.05	.19	(-.30, .19)	(-.18, .09)	18.63
Problems	13	2105	.19	.22	.16	(.02, .42)	(.11, .28)	23.61
ATTITUDINAL								
Help seeking	14	3343	-.22	-.25	.11	(-.40, -.11)	(-.28, -.15)	27.07
Gender roles	9	1805	-.26	-.30	.09	(-.42, -.19)	(-.32, -.19)	47.17

Note. k = number of samples; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; r = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = Percentage of variance explained by artifacts

Table 5. Meta-Analytic Relationships between Restrictive Emotionality and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, Attitudes towards Help Seeking, and Attitudes towards Gender Roles

	k	N	r	ρ	SD_ρ	95% CI	90% CrI	V_{art} (%)
PSYCHOLOGICAL								
Wellbeing	12	1812	-.28	-.33	.14	(-.51, -.15)	(-.37, -.20)	25.28
Distress	27	4751	.32	.36	.13	(.20, .53)	(.27, .36)	28.10
INTERPERSONAL								
Adjustment	12	1917	-.30	-.35	.13	(-.51, -.18)	(-.38, -.23)	30.34
Problems	13	2031	.30	.35	.19	(.01, .59)	(.20, .40)	15.24
ATTITUDINAL								
Help seeking	14	3343	-.28	-.32	.13	(-.48, -.16)	(-.34, -.21)	21.44
Gender roles	8	1411	-.26	-.30	0	(-.30)	(-.31, -.21)	100

Note. k = number of samples; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; r = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = Percentage of variance explained by artifacts

Table 6. Meta-Analytic Relationships between Restrictive Affectionate Behavior among Men and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, Attitudes towards Help Seeking, and Attitudes towards Gender Roles

	k	N	r	ρ	SD_ρ	95% CI	90% CrI	V_{art} (%)
PSYCHOLOGICAL								
Wellbeing	11	1541	-.23	-.27	.15	(-.47, -.08)	(-.33, -.14)	25.76
Distress	26	4616	.16	.19	.10	(.07, .32)	(.12, .20)	49.99
INTERPERSONAL								
Adjustment	10	1623	-.14	-.16	0	(-.16)	(-.19, -.09)	100
Problems	11	1722	.19	.21	.11	(.07, .36)	(.11, .26)	40.17
ATTITUDINAL								
Help seeking	14	3003	-.29	-.34	.17	(-.55, -.13)	(-.38, -.21)	15.59
Gender roles	8	1597	-.32	-.37	.08	(-.47, -.27)	(-.39, -.25)	43.40

Note. k = number of samples; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; r = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = Percentage of variance explained by artifacts

Table 7. Meta-Analytic Relationships between Conflict between Work and Family and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, Attitudes towards Help Seeking, and Attitudes towards Gender Roles

	k	N	r	ρ	SD_ρ	95% CI	90% CrI	V_{art} (%)
PSYCHOLOGICAL								
Wellbeing	10	1413	-.22	-.26	0	(-.26)	(-.27, -.17)	100
Distress	23	4175	.27	.33	.09	(.22, .44)	(.23, .31)	52.18
INTERPERSONAL								
Adjustment	8	1159	-.06	-.07	.13	(-.23, .10)	(-.15, .03)	35.60
Problems	10	1657	.12	.14	.17	(-.07, .36)	(.03, .22)	22.11
ATTITUDINAL								
Help seeking	13	2875	-.13	-.15	.05	(-.21, -.09)	(-.17, -.08)	67.62
Gender roles	6	1249	-.11	-.14	.11	(-.28, .00)	(-.20, -.02)	38.05

Note. k = number of samples; N = total number of individuals in the k samples; r = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = Percentage of variance explained by artifacts

Moderator Analyses

As the patterns of correlations were similar for the total score and the sub-scores, the moderator analysis was conducted only with the total score of the GRCS-I. Three moderators of the relationships between masculine gender role conflict and its psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates were hypothesized. The relationships were expected to be stronger when individuals were of older age, when individuals belong to ethnic minority groups, and when individuals were married. The search of the presence of moderators was empirically justified by the fact that less than 75% of the observed variance was explained by artifacts and that the credibility intervals are wide for psychological wellbeing, psychological distress, interpersonal adjustment, interpersonal problems, and attitudes towards help seeking. The variable "attitudes towards gender roles" was excluded from the moderator analysis as no variance was observed after the correction of sampling and measurement errors. Table 7-9 present the results of the moderator analyses by age (< = 30 vs. > 30), ethnicity (predominantly White vs. ethnically diverse), and marital status (predominantly married vs. predominantly unmarried).

Age. Results of moderator analyses by age are presented in Table 7. The table compares meta-analytic estimations generated in men aged less than or equal to 30 and that generated in men aged more than 30. Except for interpersonal problems, the corrected associations between male gender role conflict and psychological wellbing, psychological distress, interpersonal adjustment, and attitudes toward help seeking were stronger in older men than in their younger counterparts. However, after the Bonferroni criterion was applied, Hunter and Schmidt's *z* tests for moderation only revealed significant between-group difference for the variables of psychological wellbeing (-.05 vs. -.26) and interpersonal adjustment (-.19 vs. -.38). In other words,

our results appear to propose that the impact of male gender role conflict was stronger among older men than younger ones.

Ethnicity. Moderator analyses by ethnicity are presented in Table 8, which compares meta-analytic estimations generated in predominantly White groups and those generated in ethnically diverse groups. The corrected correlations between male gender role conflict and psychological distress, interpersonal adjustment, and interpersonal problems were stronger in ethnically diverse groups than in predominantly White groups. However, the direction reversed when it came to psychological wellbeing and attitudes towards help seeking. When the Bonferroni criterion was used, only the between-group difference in population effect sizes for interpersonal adjustment was significant. The corrected correlation between male gender role conflict and interpersonal adjustment was stronger among ethnic minority group (-.30) than the predominantly White Americans (-.10).

Marital Status. Moderator analyses by marital status are presented in Table 9. The Table compares results generated in predominantly married men and those generated in predominantly unmarried men. The variables psychological wellbeing, interpersonal adjustment, and attitudes towards help seeking were dropped as the minimum requirement of at least two studies per subgroup was not met. Although the corrected correlation between male gender role conflict and psychological distress was higher in predominantly married men than in predominantly unmarried men, the direction of moderation reversed when it came to interpersonal problems. When the Bonferroni criterion was used, only the between-group difference in population effect sizes for interpersonal adjustment was marginally significant ($p = .05 > .025$). The impact of male gender role conflict appeared to be stronger among married men (.35) than unmarried ones (.21).

Table 8. Moderating Effects of Age in the Meta-analytic Relationships between Total Score of Male Gender Role Scale and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, and Attitudes towards Help Seeking

	Age < = 30					Age > 30					
Variables	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*z*
PSYCHOLOGICAL											
Wellbeing	8	986	-.17	-.20	0	5	709	-.35	-.38	.14	2.39* [a]
Distress	19	3619	.29	.32	.12	7	1029	.29	.33	.03	0.24 [a]
INTERPERSONAL											
Adjustment	6	1098	-.07	-.08	.14	7	929	-.24	-.26	.01	2.76* [a]
Problems	9	1510	.25	.28	.17	6	886	.22	.25	0	-0.47 [b]
ATTITUDINAL											
Help seeking	14	3566	-.27	-.31	.08	4	689	-.28	-.32	.10	0.16 [a]

Note. *k* = number of samples; *N* = total number of individuals in the k samples; *r* = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = percentage of variance explained by artifacts V_{art} (%) = percentage of variance explained by artifacts; *z* = Hunter & Schmidt's (1990) *z* statistic for moderation

* $p < .05$ after Bonferroni adjustment

[a] The means were in the hypothesized direction; [b] The means were in the direction opposite to that hypothesized.

Table 9. Moderating Effects of Ethnicity in the Meta-analytic Relationships between Total Score of Male Gender Role Scale and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, and Attitudes towards Help Seeking

	% of White people in sample >= 80					% of White people in sample < 80					
Variables	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*z*
PSYCHOLOGICAL											
Wellbeing	6	948	-.25	-.27	.17	4	305	-.23	-.26	0	-0.11 [b]
Distress	14	2349	.27	.30	.11	12	1978	.33	.36	.10	1.29 [a]
INTERPERSONAL											
Adjustment	7	1057	-.09	-.10	.11	3	340	-.28	-.32	0	4.37* [a]
Problems	9	1396	.24	.27	.14	7	1172	.25	.29	.10	0.31 [a]
ATTITUDINAL											
Help seeking	9	2055	-.28	-.32	.06	8	2135	-.26	-.30	.09	-0.45 [b]

Note. *k* = number of samples; *N* = total number of individuals in the k samples; *r* = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = percentage of variance explained by artifacts; *z* = Hunter & Schmidt's (1990) *z* statistic for moderation

* $p < .05$ after Bonferroni adjustment

[a] The means were in the hypothesized direction; [b] The means were in the direction opposite to that hypothesized.

Table 10. Moderating Effects of Marital Status in the Meta-analytic Relationships between Total Score of Male Gender Role Scale and Psychological Wellbeing, Psychological Distress, Interpersonal Adjustment, Interpersonal Problems, and Attitudes towards Help Seeking

	% of married people in sample = > 50					% of married people in sample < 50					
Variables	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*k*	*N*	*r*	ρ	SD_ρ	*z*
PSYCHOLOGICAL											
Distress	3	261	.25	.28	.11	3	557	.26	.29	0	-0.11 [b]
INTERPERSONAL											
Problems	5	637	.30	.35	.15	4	439	.19	.21	.07	1.64~ [a]

Note. *k* = number of samples; *N* = total number of individuals in the k samples; *r* = means of uncorrected correlations; ρ = means of corrected correlations; SD_ρ = standard deviations of corrected correlations; 95% CI = lower and upper limits of confidence intervals; 90% CrI = lower and upper limits of 90% credibility intervals; V_{art} (%) = percentage of variance explained by artifacts V_{art} (%) = percentage of variance explained by artifacts; *z* = Hunter & Schmidt's (1990) *z* statistic for moderation

~ $p < .05$ after Bonferroni adjustment

[a] The means were in the hypothesized direction; [b] The means were in the direction opposite to that hypothesized.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The present meta-analysis revealed significant relations between male gender role conflict and its psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates. Results showed that gender role conflict was negatively related to psychological wellbeing and interpersonal adjustment, and was positively related to psychological distress, interpersonal problems, negative attitudes towards help seeking, and traditional attitudes towards gender roles. The finding that the effect sizes varied substantially implied the presence of certain moderating factors. Subgroup analysis found age, ethnicity, and, less confidently, marital status, to moderate the relationships between gender role conflict and some of its postulated consequences.

Reliability of the GRCS-I

O'Neil and Owen (c.f. O'Neil et al., 1995) summarized 11 studies that have reported internal consistencies on the GRCS-I and computed an average reliability of the scale across them. The average Cronbach's alphas for the four the subscales of SPC. RE, RABBM, and CBWFR were .86, .84, .84, and .80 respectively. For the GRCS-I total score, the average reliability across seven studies which had calculated the information was .88. Based on more than 6000 individuals from more than 30 independent samples, we yielded very similar results concerning the internal consistency of GRCS-I. The sample-weighted mean reliability of the subscales SCP, RE, RABBM, and CBWFR were 86, .85, .85, and .80 respectively. The mean reliability of the overall scale was estimated to be .90. As stated by Good et al. (1995), the GRCS-I's psychometric properties are requisite before knowledge concerning the correlates of gender role conflict can be used with confidence in applied or research settings. Our study substantiated those results derived from previous studies on male gender role conflict by providing evidence in support of

good internal consistency of the scale.

Main Effects

Significant relations between the overall male gender role conflict and its psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal correlates were found in the present review. The results are in concord with O'Neil's (1995) original position that gender role conflict operates at different overlapping and complex levels, including affective experiences, behaviors, and cognitions.

On an affective level, male gender role conflict is theorized to result in emotional turmoil. Our study also revealed a negative association between gender role conflict and psychological wellbeing (ρ = -.26) and a positive association between male gender role conflict and psychological distress (ρ = .32). According to Jourard (1974, p.17; as cited in Good & Mintz, 1990), although men also have the atavistic needs to "love and to be loved, to know and to be known, and to care and to be cared for", they are required to be strong, independent, inexpressive, and competitive and to evaluate achievement in terms of career or lucrative gains. If a man stubbornly adheres to these socially constructed masculine standards, he may commit more risky behaviors (e.g., substance use, physical assaults, and unhealthy life style) in the name of status, power, and competition (Good, Heppner, & Debord, 2004) and ignore those basic needs of affiliation and emotional catharsis, which may, in turn, leads to poorer mental health.

Gender role conflict as a behavioral phenomenon implicates men's acts, reactions, and interaction with others. The findings that men with higher score on the GRCS-I displayed lower interpersonal adjustment (ρ = -.19) and more interpersonal problems (ρ = .28) confirmed the compatibility of male gender role conflict in an interpersonal theoretical framework. These theories attached great importance to

inflexible and self-defeating interpersonal patterns in understanding an individual's maladjusted behaviors (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983). The disturbed individuals are either unwilling or unable to change their interpersonal patterns based on the appropriateness to the situation. They tend to over-use a narrow range of interpersonal responses, even though the people they interact with may not requite with complimentary behaviors (Mahalik, 2000). Men who engage in gender role conflict patterns, for a fear of being or appearing feminine, may limit their repertoire of response and overdevelop a restricted set of interpersonal transactions (e.g., silent and independent type) of interpersonal behaviors.

The finding that male gender role conflict was negatively related to attitudes towards help seeking (ρ = -.30) and gender roles (ρ = -.38) appeared to reflect the cognitive effect of a rigid enactment of masculine ideals. O'Neil (1995) posited that the experience of gender role conflict on a cognitive level is bred from restrictive ways of thinking about gender roles of masculinity and femininity. For example, men who scored high on the GRCS-I placed vast emphasis on power and status. However, as illustrated by Tracey's (1985) model of the therapeutic process, when people begin to seek professional help, disclose information, and express internal feelings, there is a shift in power in favor of the therapist. Men engage in gender role conflict may feel particularly uncomfortable with approaching therapy due to this yielding of power. Even when traditional men concede to enter a psychological therapy, they are also likely to terminate the therapy, possibly due to an expectation of submission of power (Blaniza & Watkins, 1996). Concerning attitudes towards gender roles, cognitive restriction may be related to a desire for maintaining traditional (i.e. dominant-subordinate) rights and roles of women and sexual minority. As a general fear of femininity, male gender role conflict may manifest itself in a proclivity to

restrict women and other sexual minorities' rights as a method of coping with their fear of femininity (Robinson & Schwartz, 2004).

Age as a Moderator

Our analysis showed, as predicted, that the associations between masculine gender role conflict and psychological wellbeing and interpersonal adjustment were stronger in elder men than in younger men. The results are consistent with the life course perspective (Elder, 1985), which emphasizes the timing of role transitions in determining the social acceptance and ramifications of these new roles. Masculinity scripts across different cultures typically document a gender-role reversal in later period of life (e.g., Gutmann, 1975; Douglas & Arenberg, 1978; Shimonaka, Nakazato, Kawaai, & Sato, 1997). The life course theory posits that occupying particular roles at non-normative stages of the life course may undermine wellbeing and adjustment (Elder, 1985). Men may suffer more detrimental effect by retaining persistent worries about personal achievement and emotional expression in later stage of life, because the rigid enactment of these roles involves a deviation from a normative status.

Ethnicity as a Moderator

Gender role conflict was found to be more strongly related to interpersonal adjustment in ethnic minority groups than in predominantly White groups. This may be related to the difficulty when one needs to incorporate masculinity originated from his own ethnic origin to the main stream masculinity bred in America. The cultural dimension of individualism vs. collectivism, for example, differs across cultures. When compared with White people, ethnic minority groups (e.g., Asians, Hispanics, and African Americans) tend to come from a more collectivistic tradition (Hofstede, 1980). Collectivist cultures are those in which personal identity is mainly defined by

long-lasting memberships or relations to other people (Smith, Bond, & Kagitcibasi, 2006). As male gender roles are constructed against a specific cultural background (Gilmore, 1990; Pleck, 1995), the conception of masculinity in ethnical minority groups may incorporate more elements of interpersonal connectedness. Given modern American society's propensity to romanticize an independent and autonomous type of men (Good et al., 1995), men of colors, who may once be socialized to achieve a more "collectivistic" form of masculinity, may find it particularly difficult to live to that standard of masculine.

Marital Status as a Moderator

We predicted that marital status might moderate the relationship between male gender role conflict and its correlates. However, our results only revealed a marginally significant difference in the population effect sizes for interpersonal problems. A nuptial household setting is conducive to a gender-based division of labor and normative expectations about marital roles, both of which may sensitize men's awareness of masculinity conception (Fan & Marini, 2000). However, the influence of marriage on the strength of relation between gender role conflict and psychological and interpersonal problems may be counteracted by the resource derived from marriage. According to the martial resource model, married people enjoy better physical and psychological health because they are generally equipped with greater economic resources, social support, and regulation of health behaviors (Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990; Umbersome, 1992). These resources may work against the sensitizing effect married household and buffer the detrimental effects of masculine gender role conflict in married men.

The moderating effect of marital status may also be more salient for other variables, such as psychological wellbeing, interpersonal adjustment, and attitudes

towards help seeking. However, as the minimum requirement of at least two studies per subgroup was not met for these variables, the hypothesized moderating effect of marital status in these aspects could not be examined in the present study. Given that the moderating effect did not reach a statistically significant level, one should cautious when generalizing this piece of results in other settings.

Limitations

Meta-analysis amounts to a powerful statistical tool for synthesizing empirical studies. However, a few limitations need to be addressed when we interpret its results. First, although the number of studies was sufficient and z tests of significance were conducted, the moderator analyses may still be influenced by the small number of studies, particularly the primary and secondary sampling errors accrued, in some subgroups. Besides, the cutoff points employed in this review when dividing studies into subgroups may not be optimal for detecting moderating effects. For examples, we set the cutoff point for moderation analysis of age as 30 largely because there are few studies based on men aged over 40. Subgroup analysis might yield more salient moderating effects for age when we were able to set the cutoff point as 40.

Second, this study meta-analyzed bivariate correlational data; the cross-sectional design of the included studies precluded any conclusive statements regarding causal effects. The theoretical framework underlying conceptualizations of male gender role conflict inquires whether men would experience particular discrepancies between real and ideal masculine selves as stressful or conflictual (Levant, 1996) and how "socialized gender role have negative consequences on the person or others" (O'Neil, 1995, p.166). However, it is also plausible that men with more negative attitudes towards help seeking, for instance, are more likely to experience personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self.

Longitudinal research aimed at parsing out the experience of male gender role conflict is called for.

Our analysis indicated that some relationships between male gender role conflict and its psychological and interpersonal correlates were significantly moderated by age and ethnicity. Yet, the moderators examined cannot account for all the variability observed. Several other caveats, such as sexual orientation, socioeconomic levels, and personality traits, may also be likely to account for systematic variation across studies. However, given that there has been a lack of research investigating gender role conflict and related constructs with noncollege men (Heppner, 1995) and that relevant studies scantly report the demographic information of participants, the examination of other moderators are ill propitious in this stage. Addressing the potential moderating effect of these variables may be effectively done in single studies. Researchers can also conduct masculinity-related studies in heterogeneous samples of men and accumulate studies for the second-wave of meta-analysis.

Concluding Remarks

For more than 30 years, continuous efforts have been invested in examining the relationships between male gender role conflict and different psychological, interpersonal, and attitudinal factors. However, as mentioned by O'Neil (2003), male gender role conflict, as a psychological construct, is still largely underdeveloped as "it lacks a full developmental, lifespan, and contextual framework" to understand men's problems (p.13). The inclusion of developmental and contextual factors in studies of masculinity (e.g., Mahalik et al., 2001; Lane & Addis, 2005) would ultimately advance the usefulness of the concepts. The present study served not only to quantitatively summarize the results of previous studies, but also to take into

account the influence of contextual factors, such as age and ethnicity, in examining male gender role conflict.

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